



AtomNet

A Deep Convolutional Neural Network for Bioactivity Prediction in Structure-based Drug Discovery

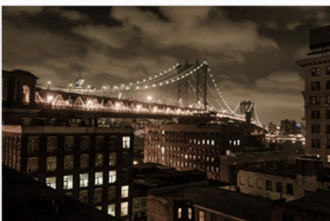
Izhar Wallach, Michael Dzamba, Abraham Heifets

Victor Storchan, Institute for Computational and Mathematical Engineering

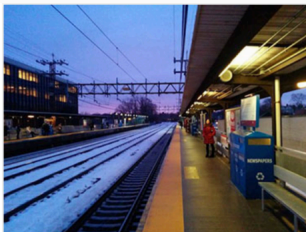
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1. Goal
2. Drugs Design techniques
3. Convolutional Neural Network for virtual screening
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What are CNNs?



night bridge city suspension bridge
river



train subway railroad railway station
transportation



competition tennis athlete stadium b
many spectators

Figure 1: recognizing scenes and the system is able to suggest relevant tags

What are CNNs?

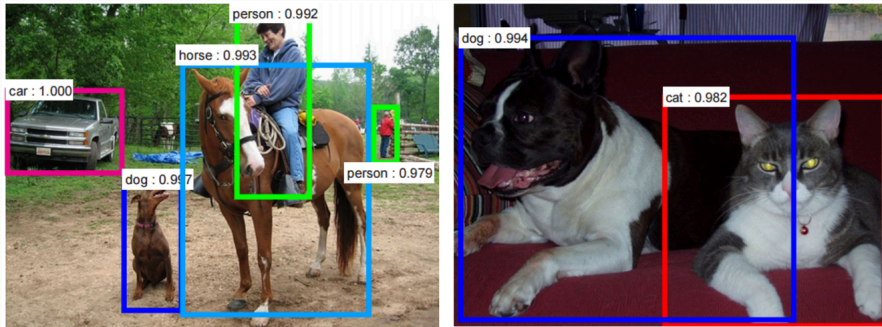


Figure 2: recognizing everyday objects, humans and animals

What are CNNs?

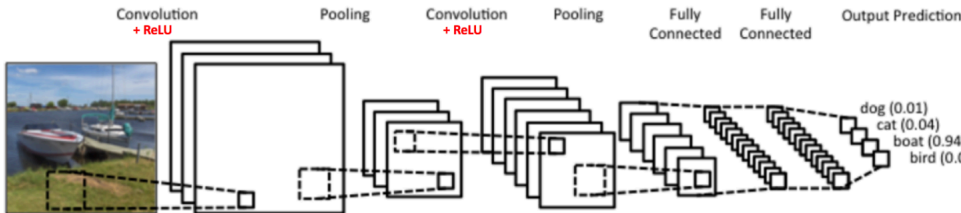


Figure 3: Architecture for classification

Primary purpose of **Convolution**:

- **Extracting** features from the input image while preserving spatial relationship between pixels.
- **Learning** image features using small squares of input data.

Convolutional Neural Network for virtual screening

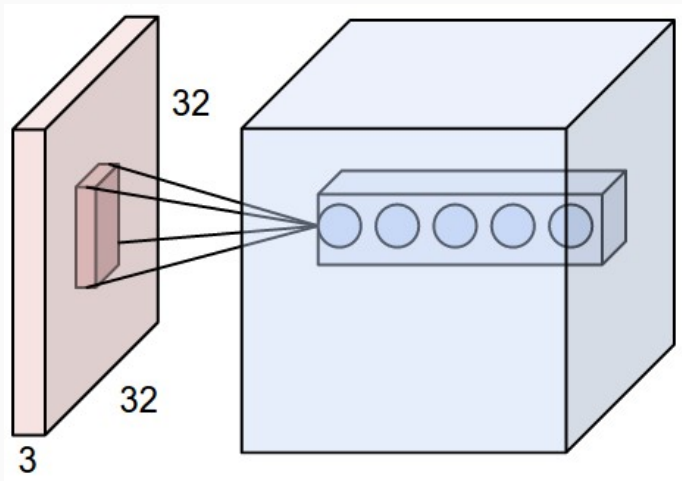


Figure 4: From CS231n, use of 5 different filters on a $32 \times 32 \times 3$ input

We want to learn the weights of the filters to discover features.








| Operation | Filter | Convolved Image |
|---|--|---|
| Identity | $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ |  |
| Edge detection | $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ |  |
| | $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ |  |
| | $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 8 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ |  |
| Sharpen | $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 5 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ |  |
| Box blur (normalized) | $\frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ |  |
| Gaussian blur (approximation) | $\frac{1}{16} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ |  |

Figure 5: Filters

Goal

Use of Deep Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) to **predict the bioactivity of small molecules** for drug discovery application.

- Apply local convolutional filters to structural target input information.
- Biochemical interactions are local by nature so should be well-handled by these sparse ML architectures.
- Predict new active molecules for targets.

Drugs Design techniques

Ligand-based Drug Design

Given a set of diverse ligands that bind to a receptor, the goal is to create a model of the receptor with this information. It ends up searching for molecules with shape similar to the ones of known activities.

Advantages:

- Computationally very efficient

Drawbacks:

- Prevent serendipity in drug discovery

Structured-based Drug design

It involves docking of candidate ligands into a protein target + scoring function (based on energy) to estimate the likelihood that the ligand will bind to the protein.

Convolutional Neural Network for virtual screening

Convolutional Neural Network: Architecture

Network architecture 3D convolutional layers were implemented to support parameters such as filter size, stride, and padding in a similar fashion to the implementation of Krizhevsky *et al.* [4]. We used network architecture of an input layer as described above, followed by four convolutional layers of 128×5^3 , 256×3^3 , 256×3^3 , 256×3^3 (number of filters \times filter-dimension), and two fully-connected layers with 1024 hidden units each, topped by a logistic-regression cost layer over two activity classes.

Model Training Training the model was done using stochastic gradient descent with the AdaDelta adaptive learning method [34], the backpropagation algorithm [35], and mini-batches of 768 examples per gradient step. No attempt was made to optimize meta-parameters except the limitation of fitting the model into a GPU memory. Training time was about a week on 6 Nvidia-K10 GPUs.

Typically, the cross-entropy loss function is used for training a probabilistic classification:

$$L(f, (x, y)) = -y \log(f(x)) - (1 - y) \log(1 - f(x)), \text{ for } y \text{ binary.}$$

Method

Input representation

The input representation is a 5 steps process which results in a 1D vector that is given to the input layer.

1. **Find the binding site** with a flooding algorithm (exploration through the surface of the protein)
2. **Define a Cartesian 3D grid** which center is set to be the center-of-mass of the binding site.
3. **Choose a pose** within the binding site cavity.
4. **Crop the geometric data** to fit within an appropriate bounding box.
5. **Unfold the 3D grid** into a 1D floating point vector.

Values: Enumeration of atom types.

1. The Directory of Useful Decoys Enhanced (DUDE):

- **Gather diverse sets of active molecules** for a set of target proteins.
- **Prevent analogue bias:** cluster according to similar active. Take one representative of each class.
- Each active comes with a set of property matched decoys (PMD, inactive).
- **Benchmark:** 102 targets, 22,886 actives (average of 224 actives per target) + 50 PMD per active.
- **Test set:** 30 targets
- **Training set:** remaining 72 targets

2. ChEMBL-20 PMD: another DUDE-like dataset.

No experimental validation to verify that decoys are actually inactive.
Decoys are chosen topologically very dissimilar from the actives.
The method is blind to cases where shapes of decoys are close to the ones of actives.

Results

Baseline: Smina

Smina is used as the baseline. It implements an improved empirical scoring function and minimization.

| AUC | | > 0.5 | > 0.6 | > 0.7 | > 0.8 | > 0.9 |
|---------------------|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| ChEMBL-20 PMD | AtomNet | 49 | 44 | 36 | 24 | 10 |
| | Smina | 38 | 10 | 4 | 1 | 0 |
| DUDE-30 | AtomNet | 30 | 29 | 27 | 22 | 14 |
| | Smina | 29 | 25 | 14 | 5 | 1 |
| DUDE-102 | AtomNet | 102 | 101 | 99 | 88 | 59 |
| | Smina | 96 | 84 | 53 | 17 | 1 |
| ChEMBL-20 inactives | AtomNet | 149 | 136 | 105 | 45 | 10 |
| | Smina | 129 | 81 | 31 | 4 | 0 |

Table 2: The number of targets on which AtomNet and Smina exceed given AUC thresholds. For example, on the ChEMBL-20 PMD set, AtomNet achieves an AUC of 0.8 or better for 24 targets (out of 50 possible targets). ChEMBL-20 PMD contains 50 targets, DUDE-30 contains 30 targets, DUDE-102 contains 102 targets, and ChEMBL-20 inactives contains 149 targets.

Figure 6:

Conclusion

Apply filter to input data and map the location of biggest magnitude to the relevant subset of the site of the binding. This subset has specific chemical functions and the filter is specializing as a detector of these functions.

1. We do not know anything about any validation step to set the number of hidden layers.
2. We do not know about how the initialization of the weights is done (usually, it is drawn from a uniform distribution)
3. Why using backpropagation instead of a second order method like conjugate gradient which could allow for faster convergence?

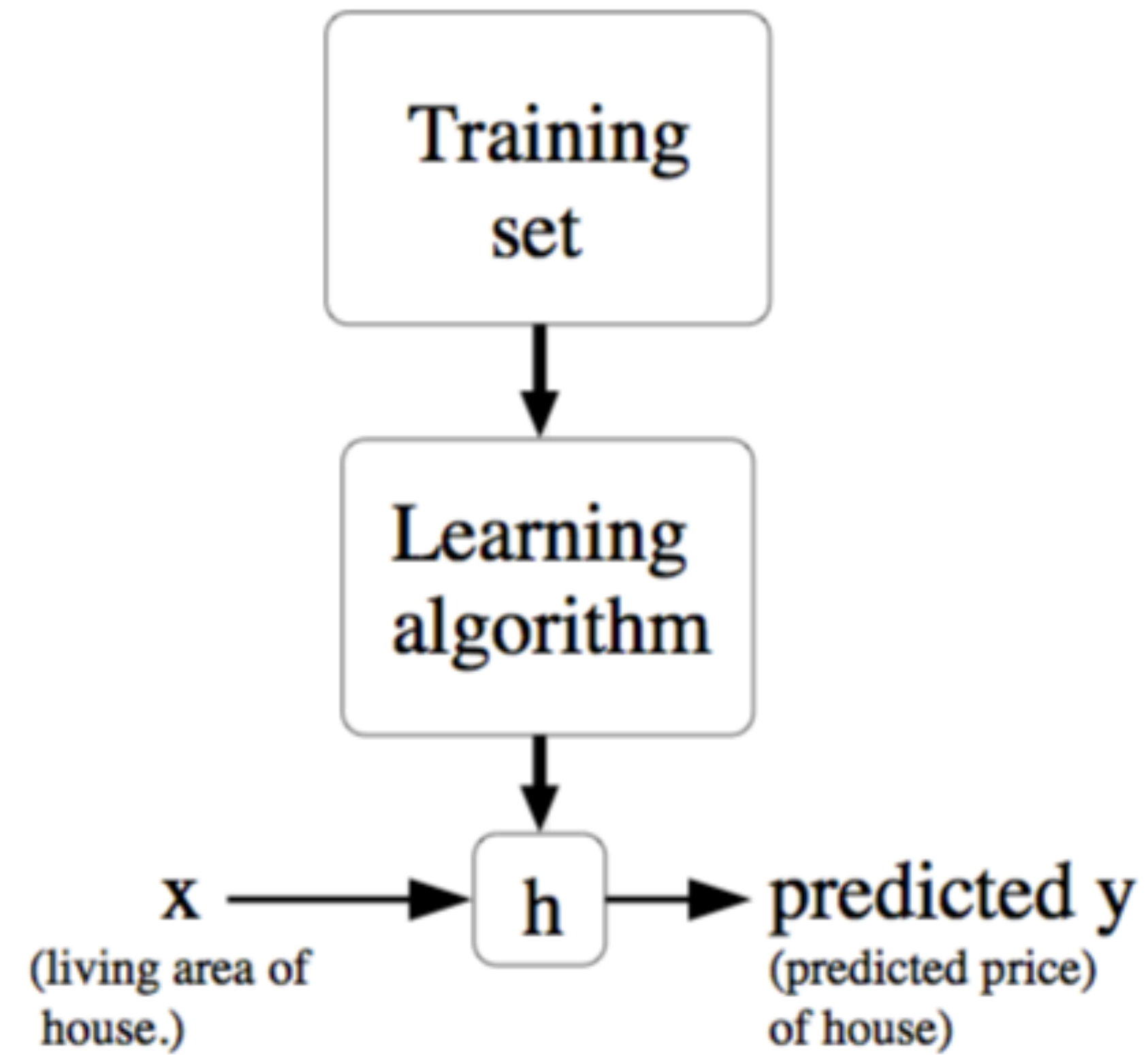
Introduction to Machine Learning and Deep Learning

Lawrence Lin Murata

(Very Quick)
Introduction
to Machine Learning
and Deep Learning

Lawrence Lin Murata

Machine Learning

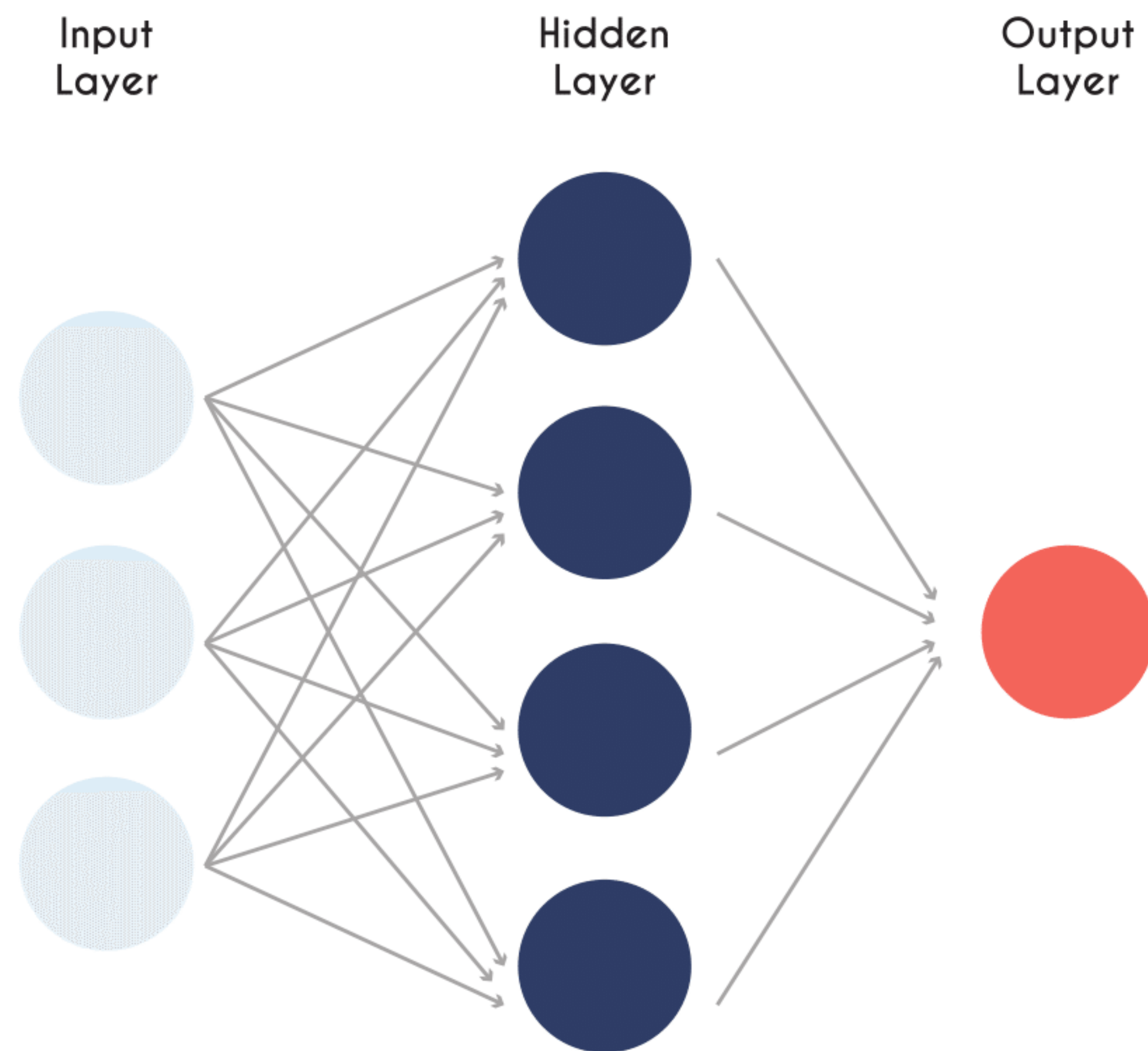


Neural Networks

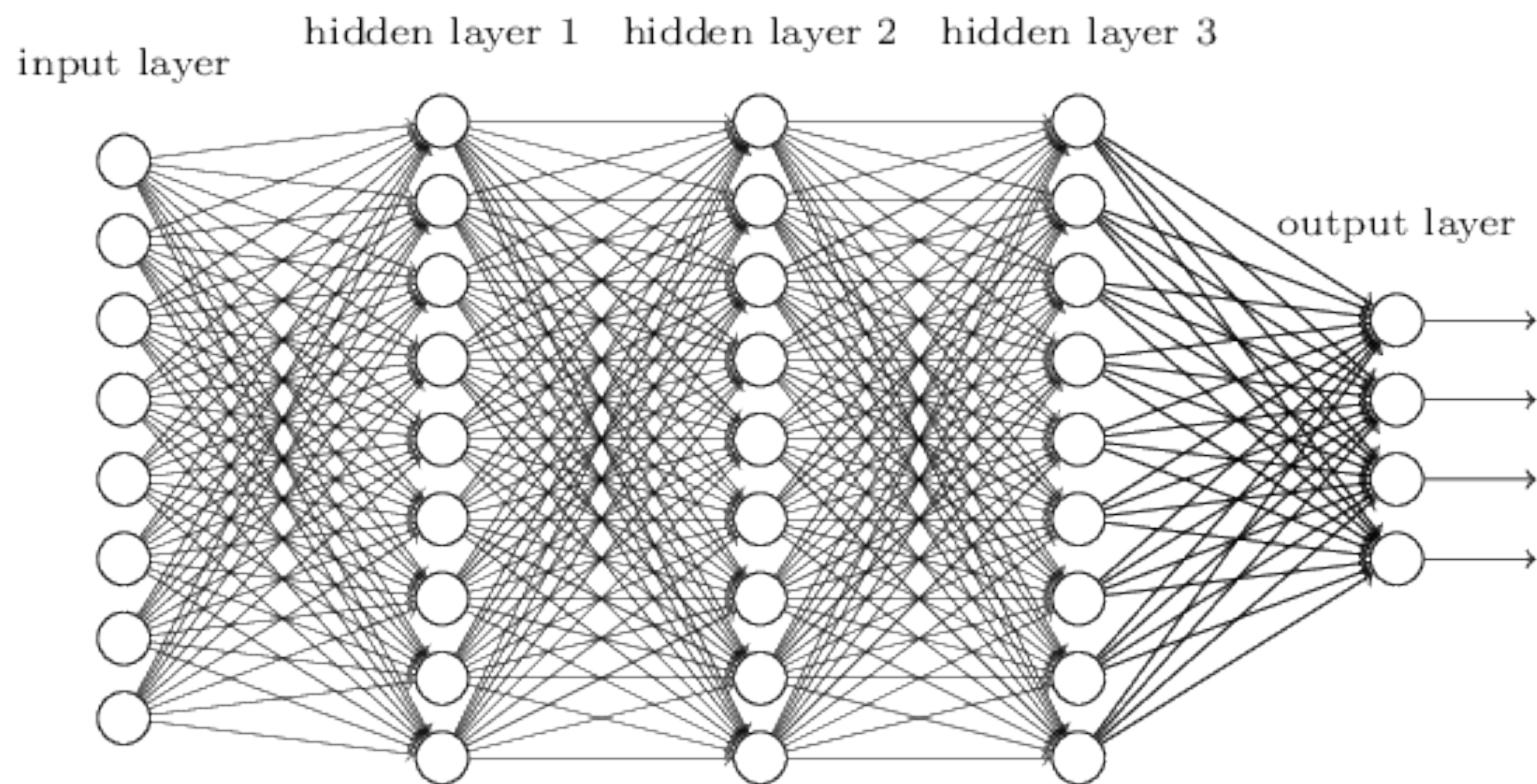
ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORKS



Neural Networks



Deep Learning



Learning Deep Architectures for Interaction Prediction in Structure-based Virtual Screening

Lawrence Lin Murata



Learning Deep
Architectures

for Interaction
Prediction

in Structure-based
Virtual Screening

Learning Deep Architectures

Learning Deep
Architectures

for Interaction
Prediction

in Structure-based
Virtual Screening

for Interaction
Prediction

for Interaction Prediction



for Interaction Prediction



+



Three teal circles are arranged in a triangular pattern on a white background. Each circle contains white text. The top-left circle contains the text 'Learning Deep Architectures'. The top-right circle contains the text 'for Interaction Prediction'. The bottom-center circle contains the text 'in Structure-based Virtual Screening'.

Learning Deep
Architectures

for Interaction
Prediction

in Structure-based
Virtual Screening

in Structure-based Virtual Screening

in Structure-based Virtual Screening

STRUCTURE

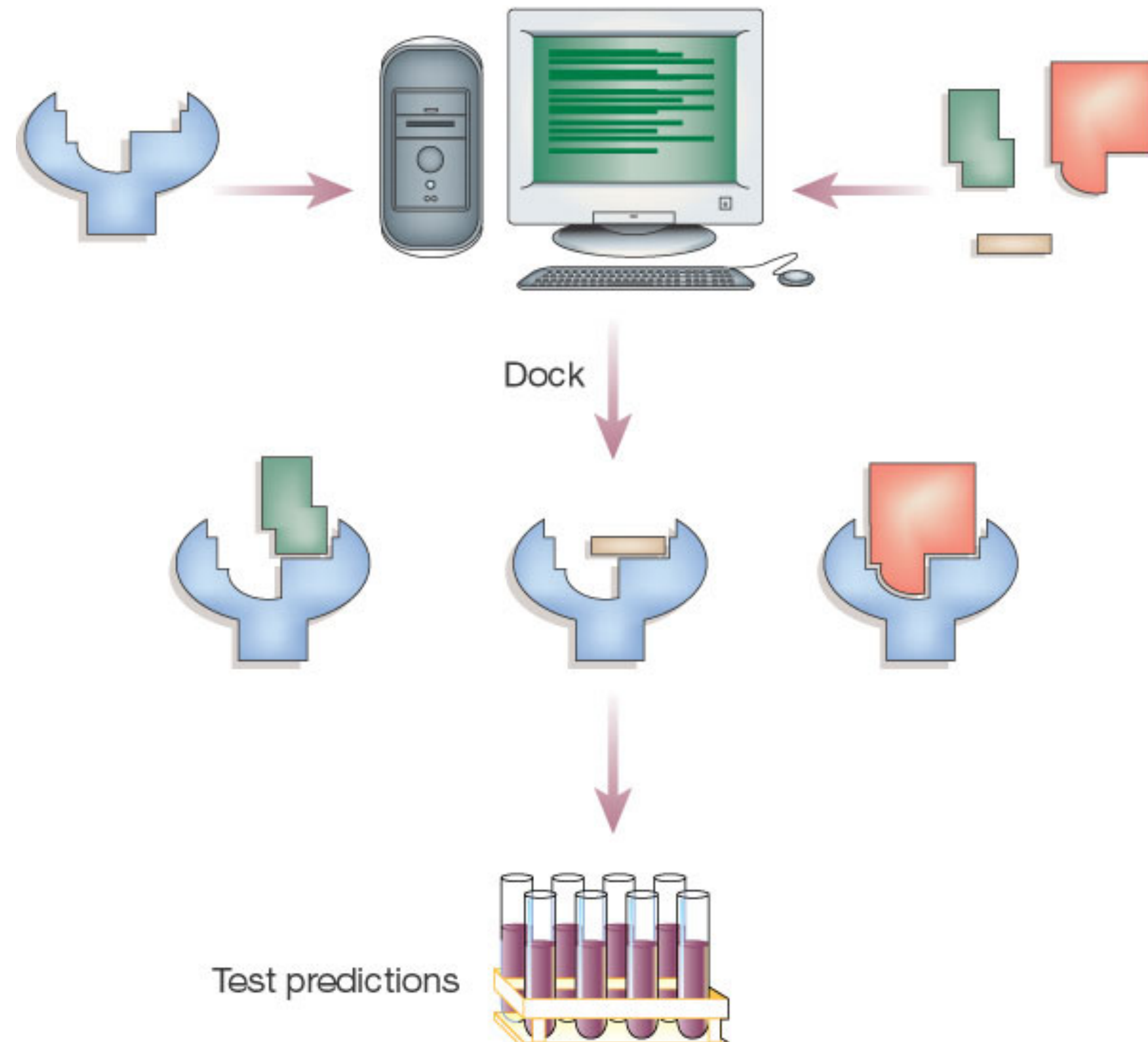
VS.

LIGAND

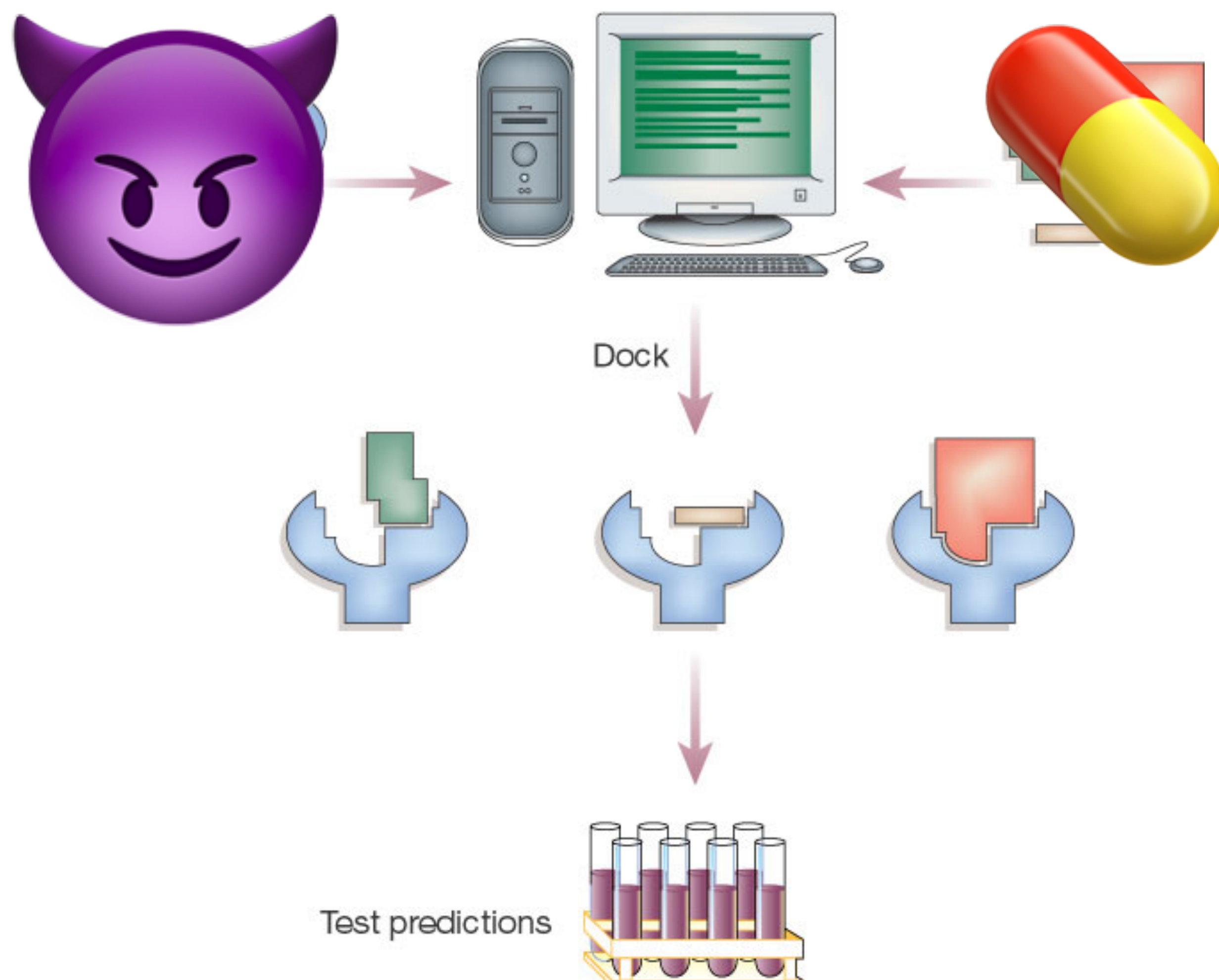
in Structure-based
Virtual Screening

STRUCTURE

in Structure-based Virtual Screening



in Structure-based Virtual Screening



Problems in Structure-based Virtual Screening

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10⁶⁰

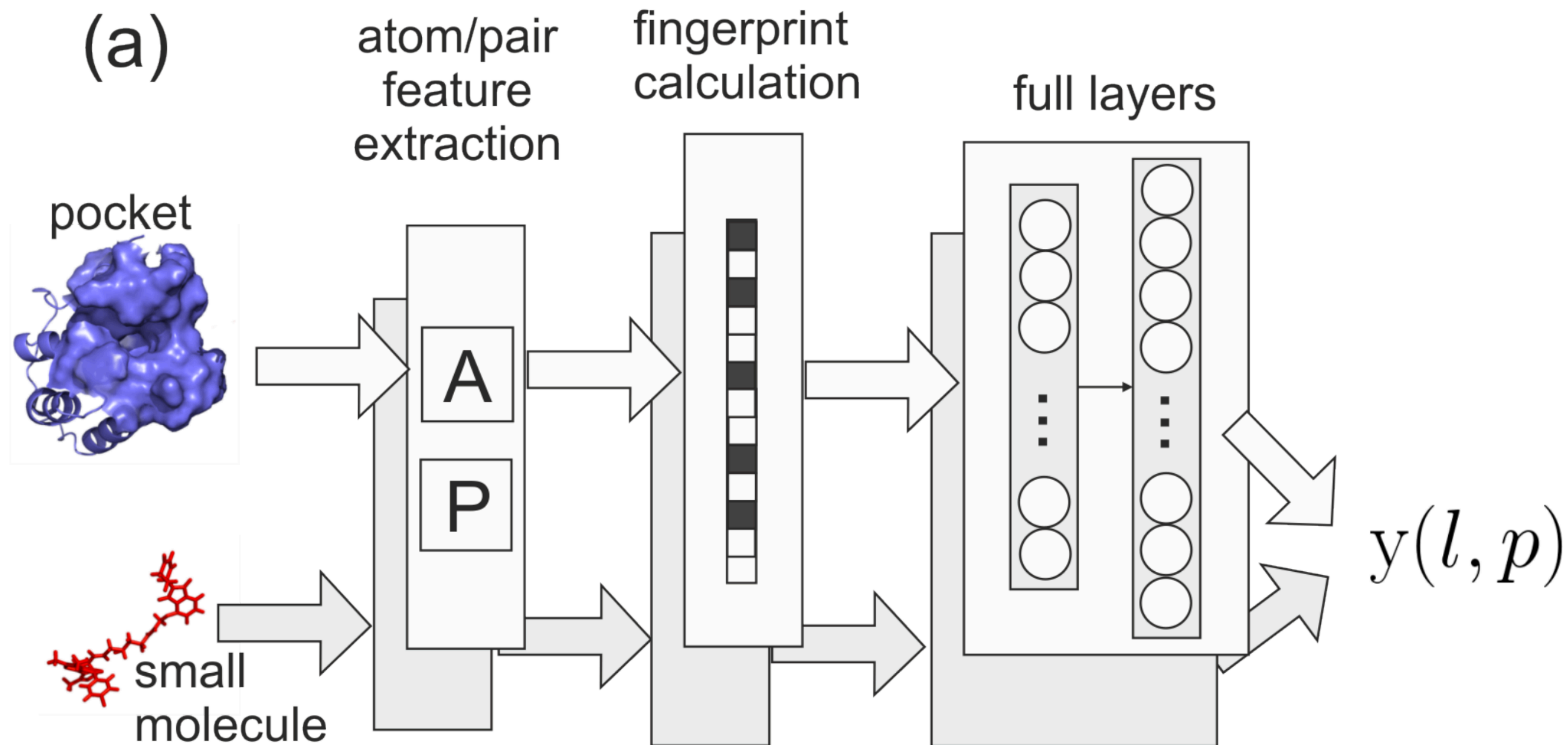
IS TOO DAMN HIGH

Problems in Structure-based Virtual Screening

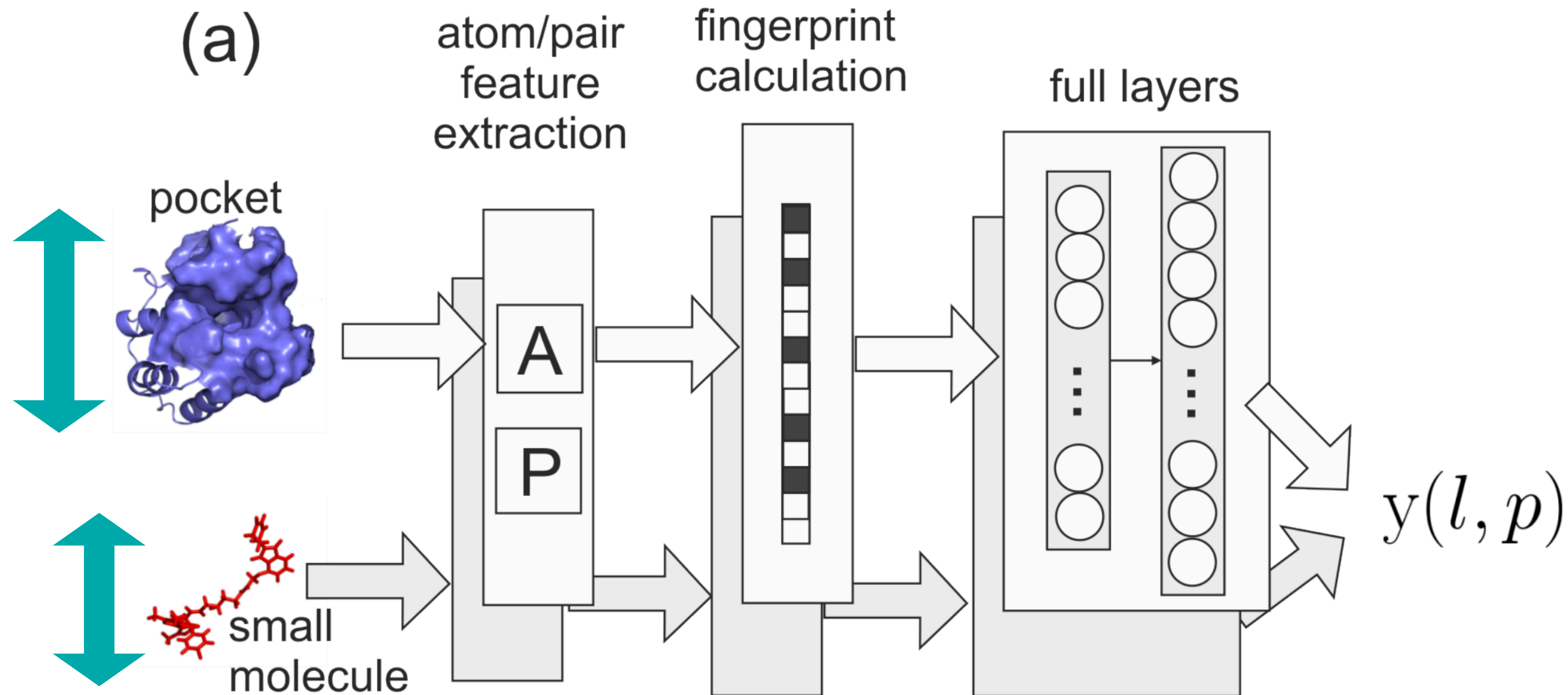
1. Complex chemical space
2. Lack of exhaustive training data
3. High number of false positives

Methods

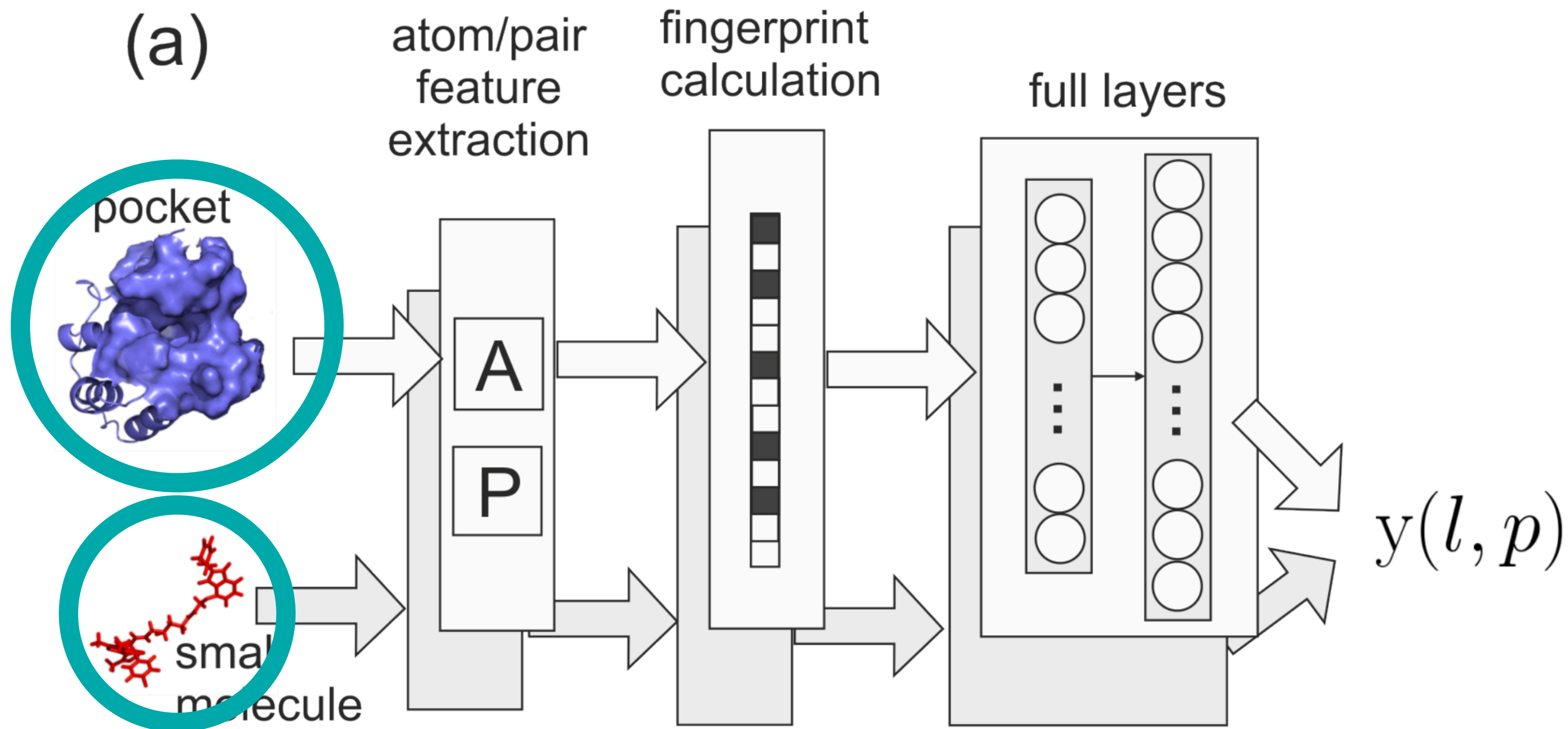
Method



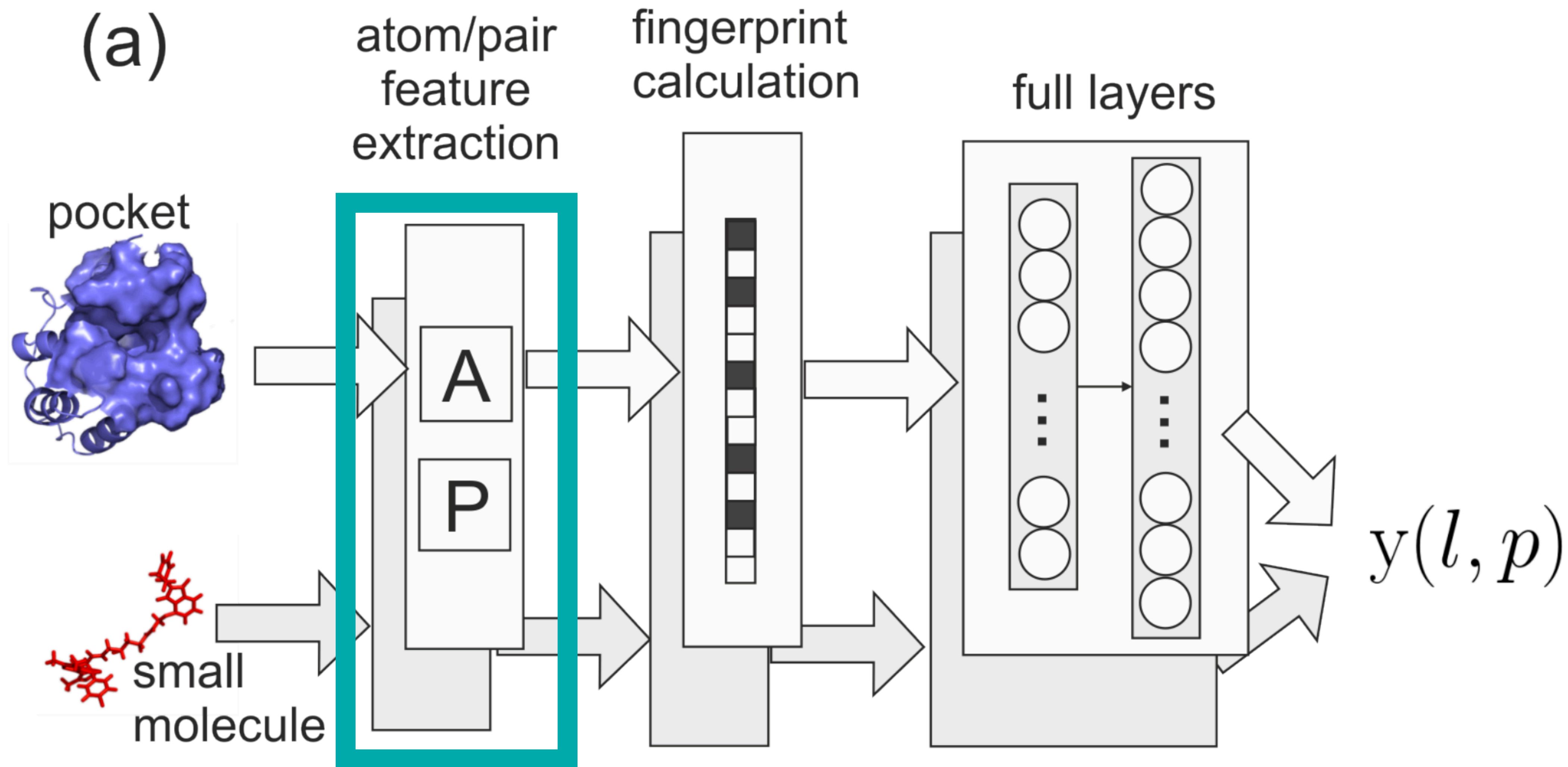
Challenges



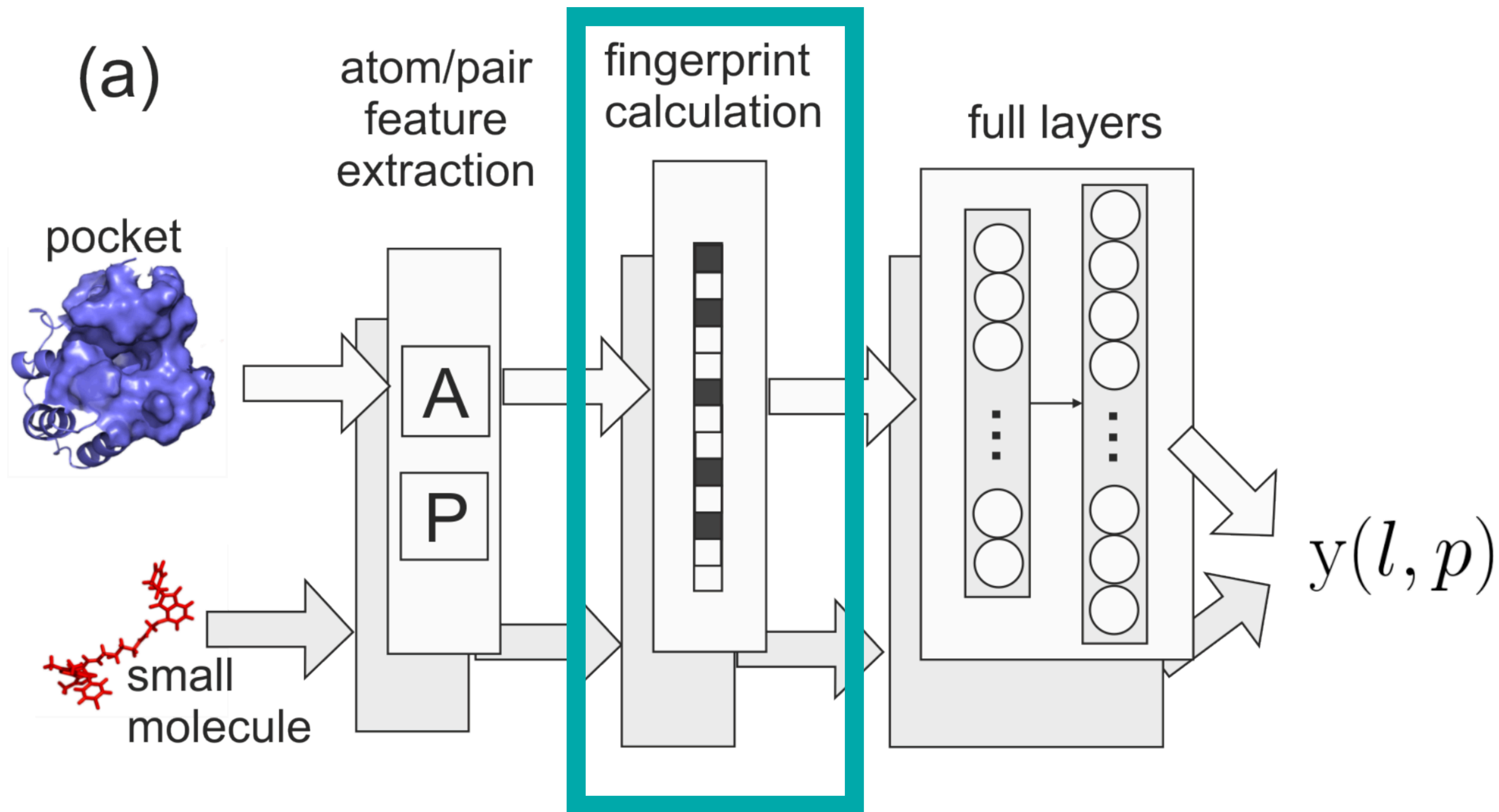
Challenges



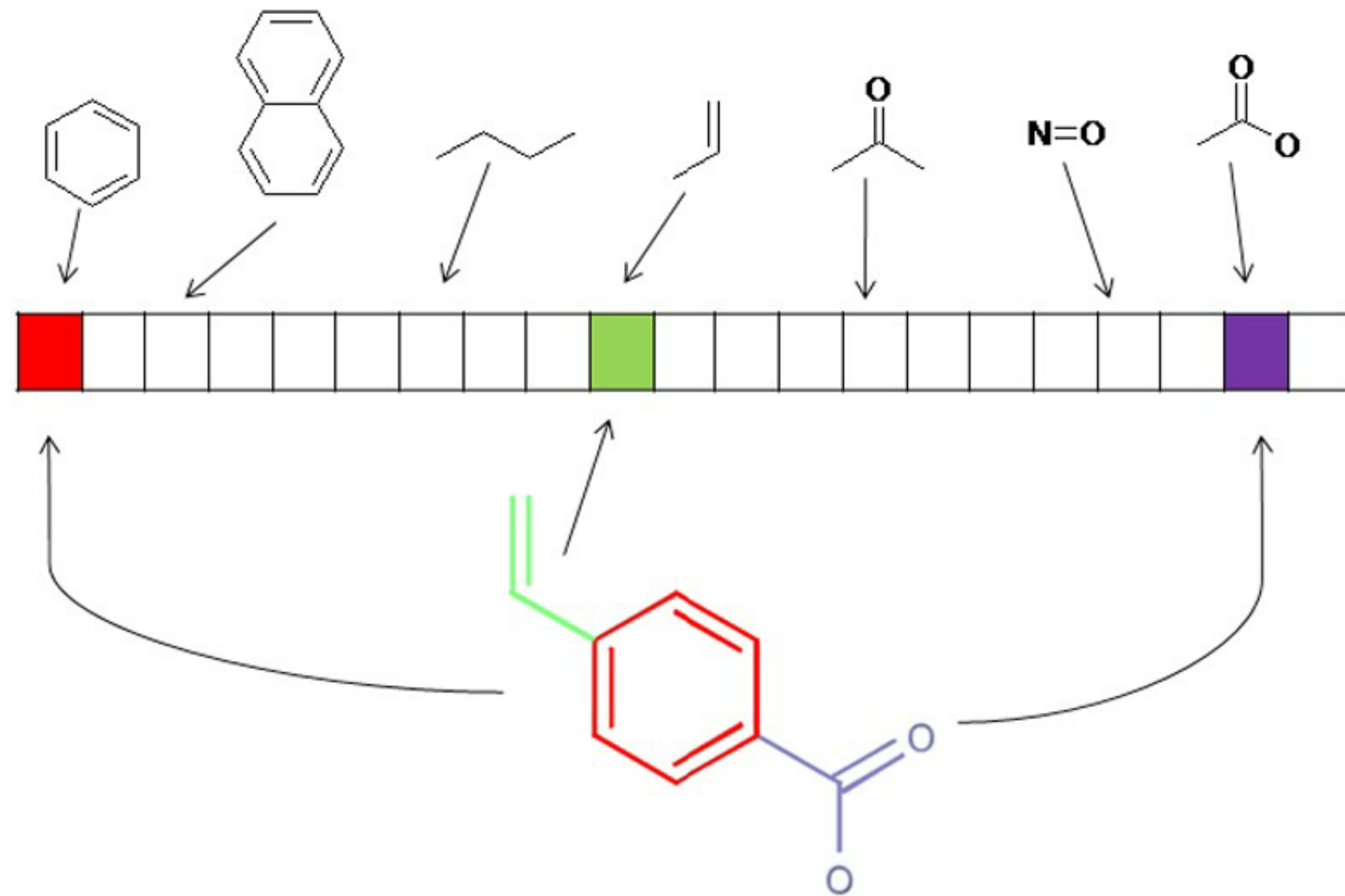
Challenges



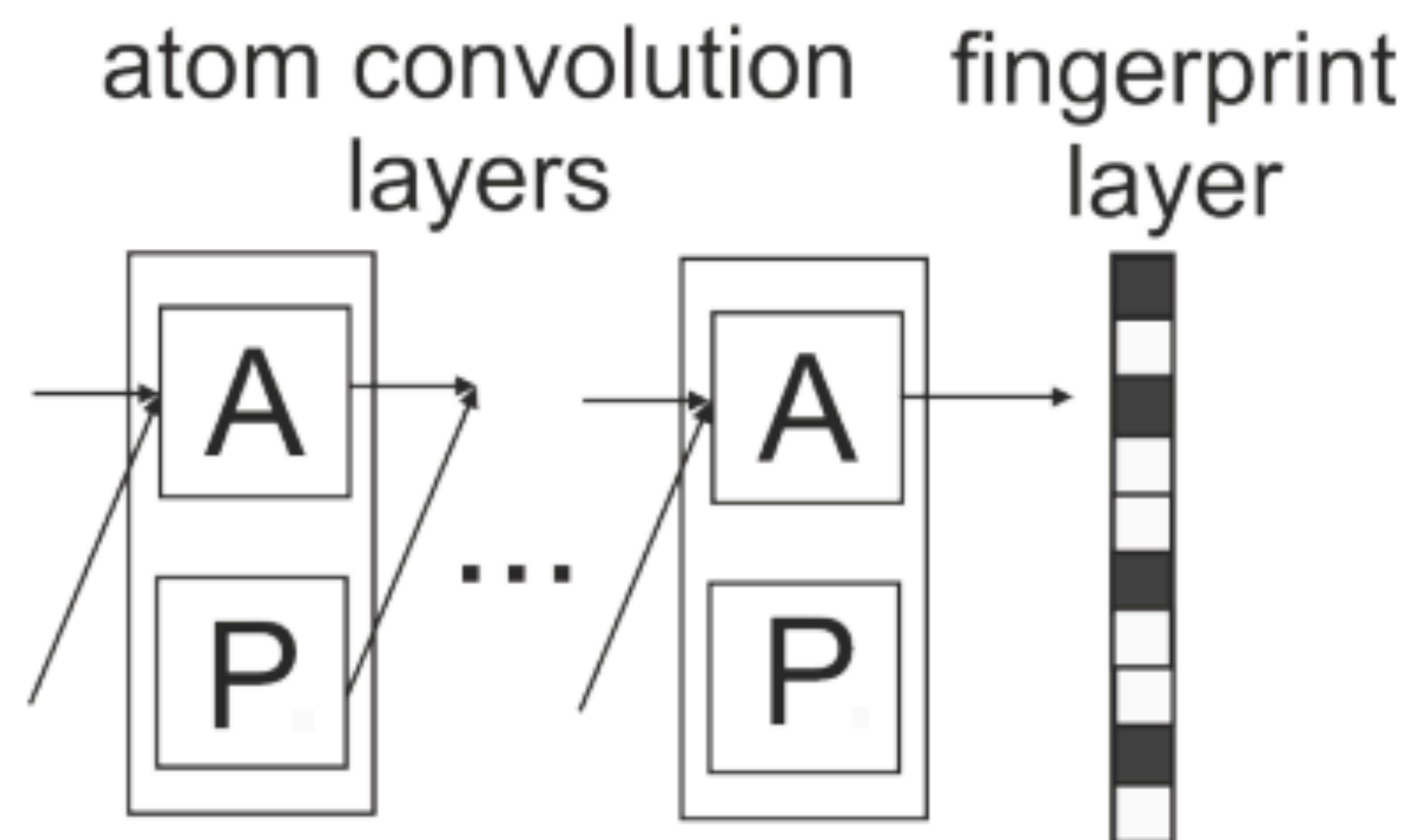
Fingerprint



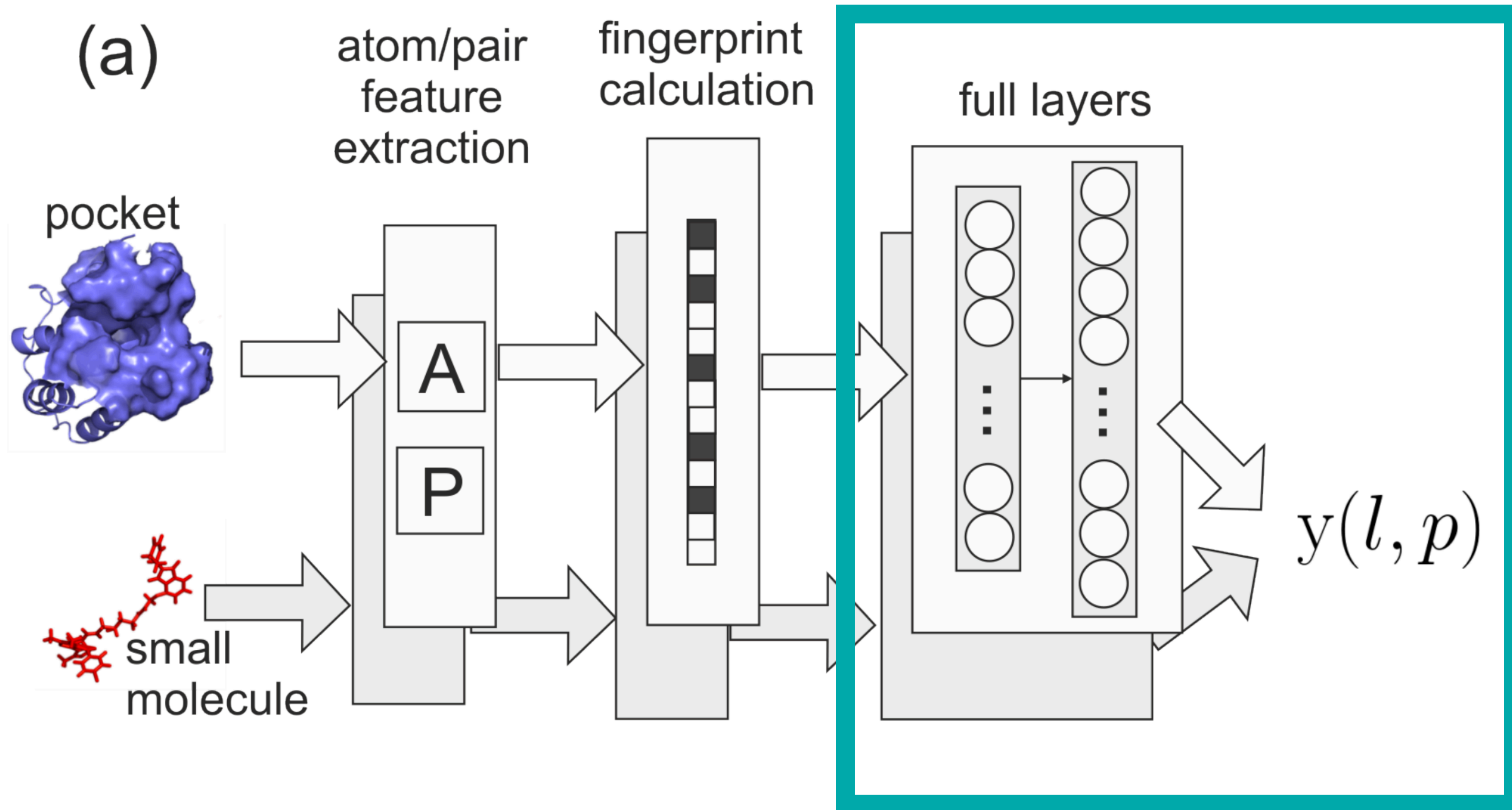
Fingerprint



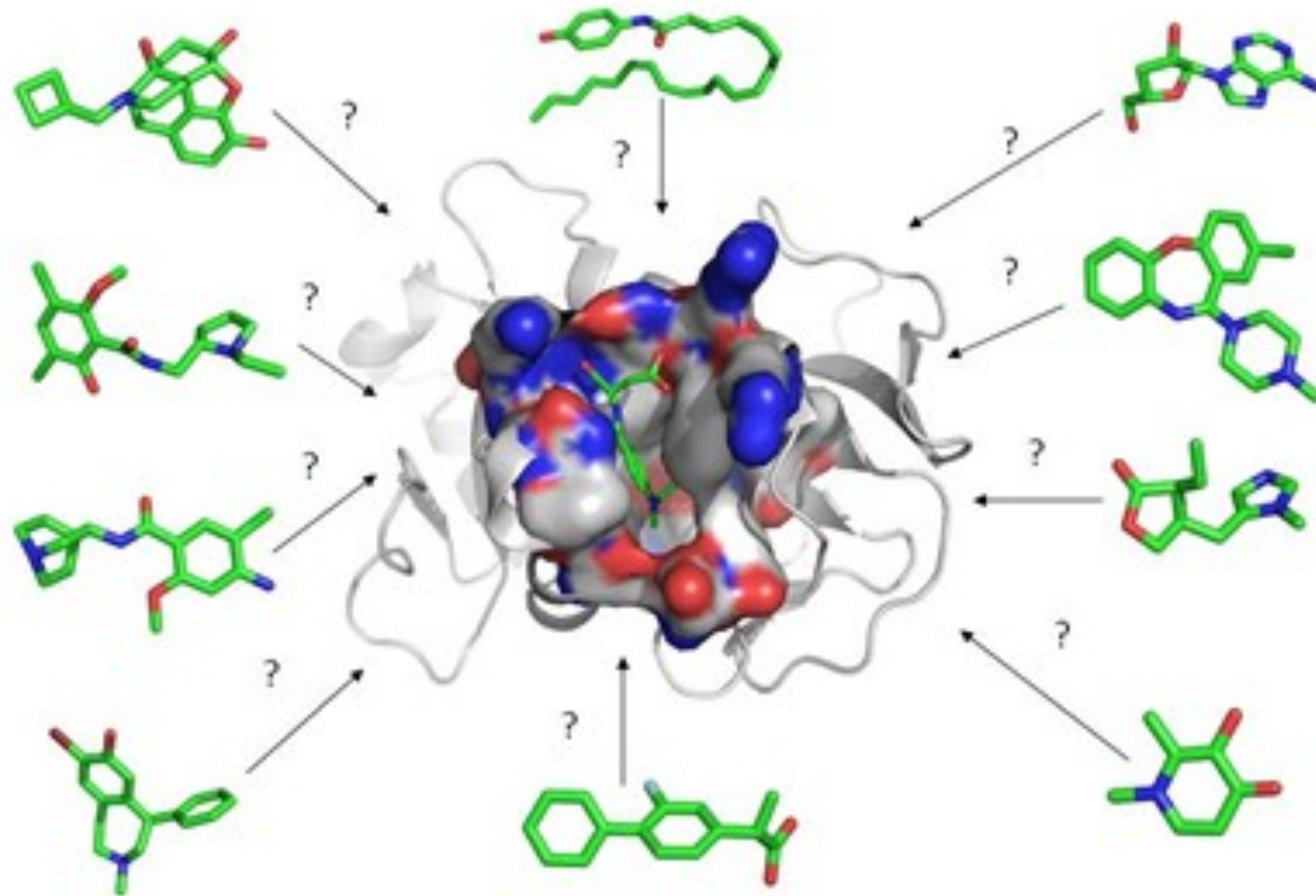
Neural Fingerprint



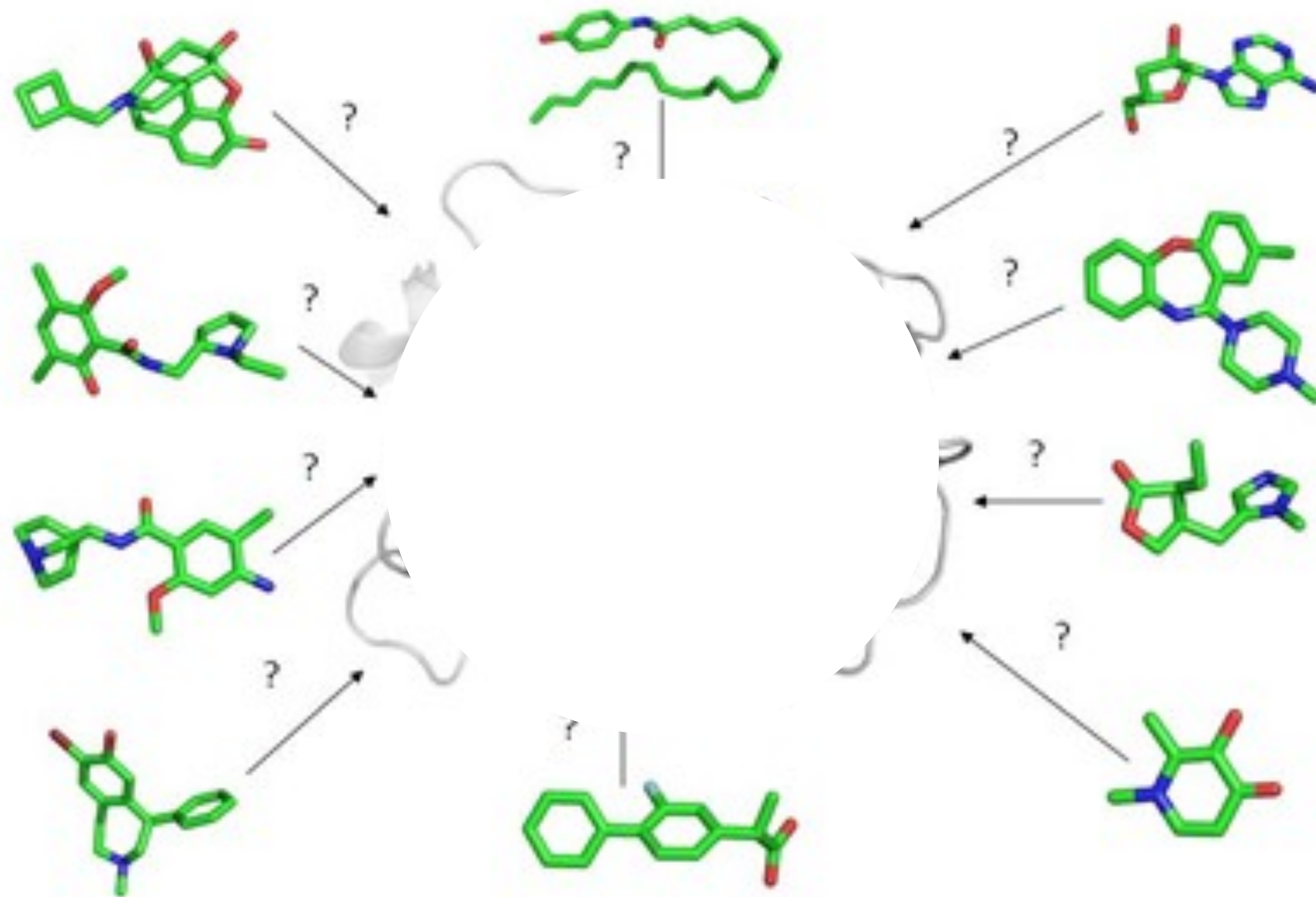
Method



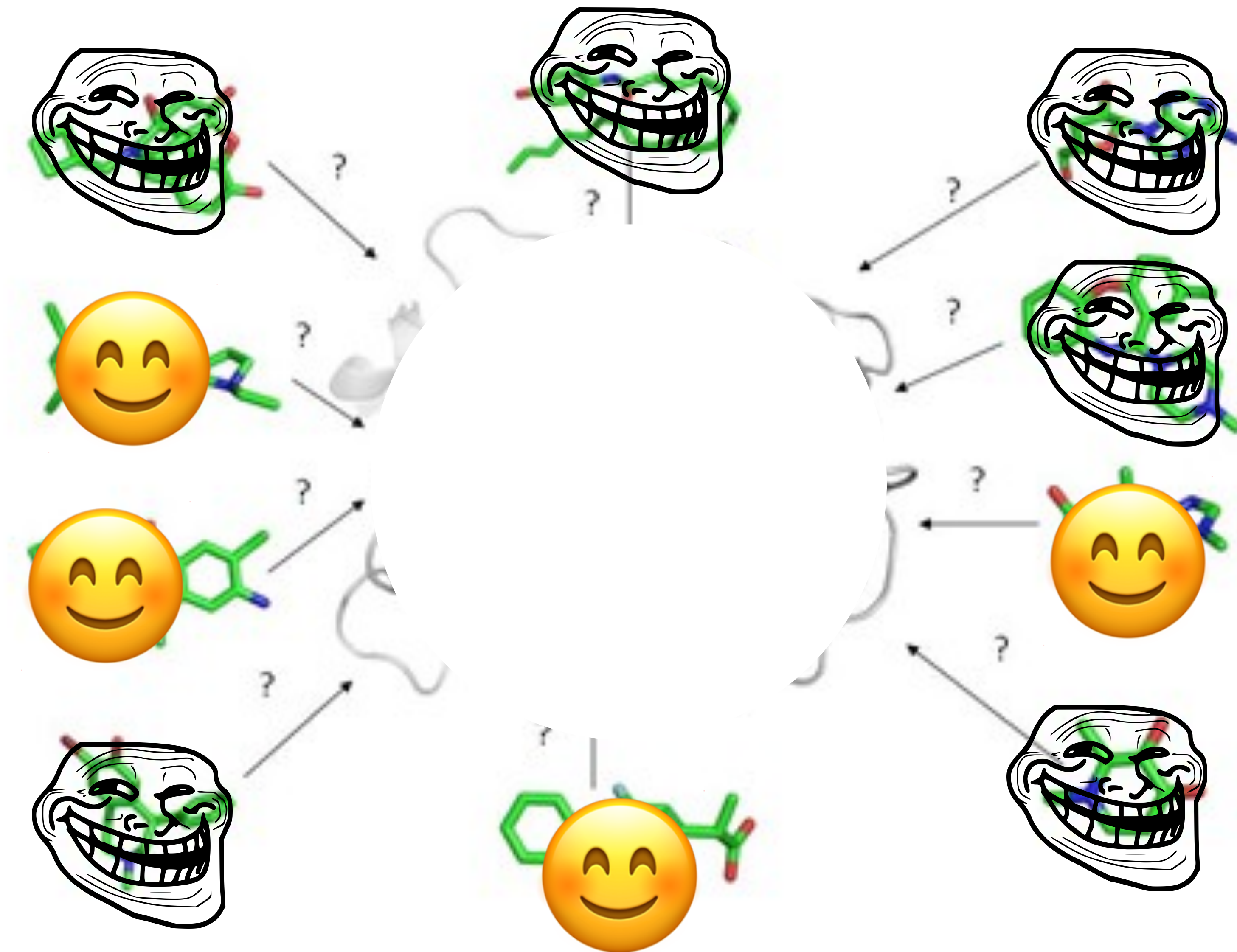
Method



Method



Method



Results

Results

Table 1: Results on DUD-E benchmark (70% of data for training and 30% of data for testing) and on DUD benchmark (leave-one-out cross-validation).

| Dataset | Method | Mean AUC |
|---------|-----------------|--------------|
| DUD-E | Smina | 0.700 |
| | AtomNet [14] | 0.855 |
| | cmpds ECFP + LR | 0.904 |
| DUD | DeepVS [9] | 0.800 |

Results

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Results

| Method | Total AUC | Mean AUC (\pm std.) | AUC \geq 0.7 | AUC \geq 0.8 | AUC \geq 0.9 |
|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| AutoDock Vina | 0.644 | 0.691 \pm 0.147 | 47 | 21 | 4 |
| Smina | 0.653 | 0.704 \pm 0.138 | 54 | 23 | 4 |
| Ours(ECFP) | 0.600 | 0.551 \pm 0.166 | 21 | 2 | 0 |
| Ours(NF) | 0.714 | 0.705 \pm 0.168 | 47 | 29 | 11 |


Future

CAN I HAZ

MOAR DATA?

Future

1. More training data
2. More accurate learnable fingerprints
3. Better learning techniques
4. More experimentation
5. Real impact



Machine - Learning Scoring Functions to Improve Structure - Based Binding Affinity Prediction And Virtual Screening

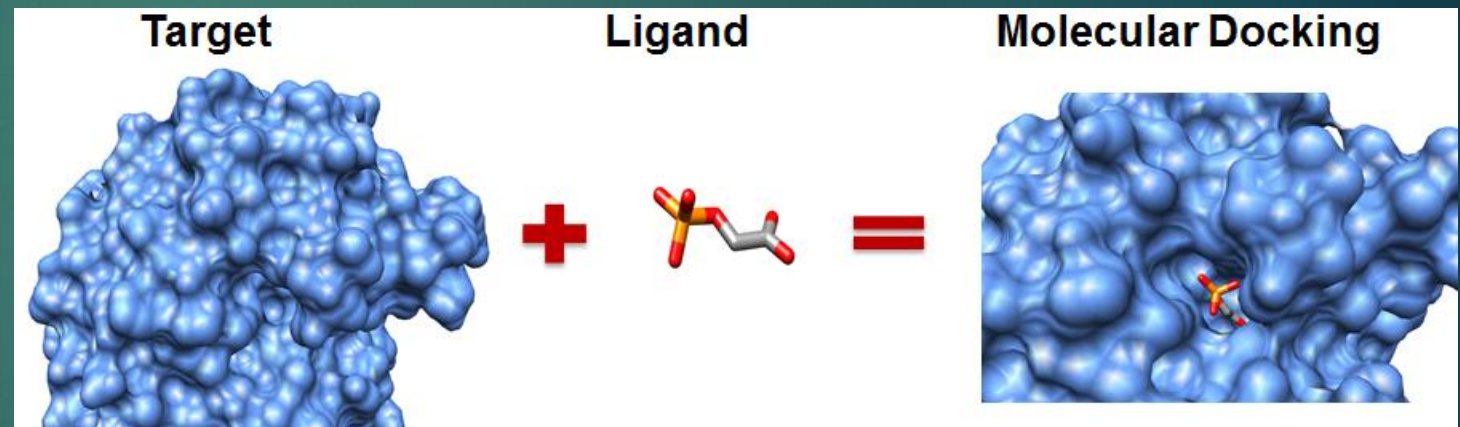
CHRISTOPHER VO

Overview

- ▶ Background
- ▶ Docking and Classical Scoring Functions
- ▶ Generic Machine Learning Scoring Functions for Binding Affinity
- ▶ Family Specific Machine Learning Scoring Functions
- ▶ Machine Learning Scoring Functions for Virtual Screening
- ▶ Emerging Applications of Machine Learning Scoring Functions

Background

- ▶ Docking
- ▶ Scoring Functions/Binding Affinity
- ▶ Virtual Screening



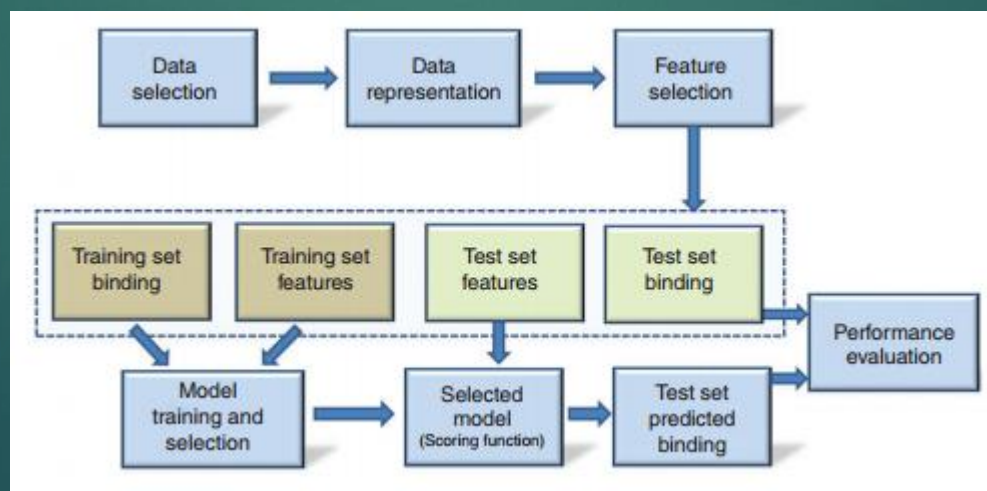
Docking and Classical Scoring Functions

- ▶ Docking – two steps: pose generation, scoring
- ▶ Classical Scoring Functions and limitations

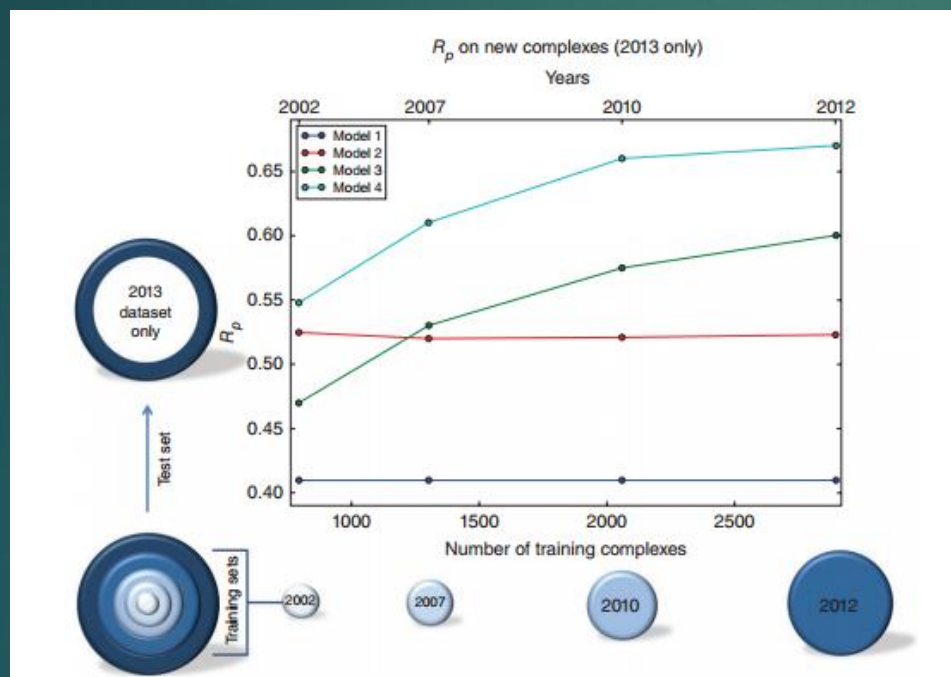
$$\Delta G = \Delta G_{VDW} \sum_{i,j} \left(\frac{A_{ij}}{r_{ij}^{12}} - \frac{B_{ij}}{r_{ij}^6} \right) + \Delta G_{hbond} \sum_{i,j} E(t) \left(\frac{C_{ij}}{r_{ij}^{12}} - \frac{D_{ij}}{r_{ij}^{10}} \right) + \Delta G_{elec} \sum_{i,j} \frac{q_i q_j}{\epsilon (r_{ij})^2} + \Delta G_{tor} N_{tor} + \Delta G_{sol} \sum_{i,j} (S_i V_j + S_j V_i) e^{-\frac{r_{ij}^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Machine Learning Scoring Functions

- ▶ Can capture more complex and non – linear characteristics
- ▶ Two applications: binding affinity and virtual screening
- ▶ Feature selection is very important
- ▶ Many benchmarks and metrics for performance (Pearson Correlation Coefficient for binding affinity, Enrichment Factor for virtual screening)



Generic Machine Learning Scoring Functions for Binding Affinity



- ▶ Work for many diverse protein – ligand complexes
- ▶ Earliest was Kernel-Partial Least Squares, showed nonlinear machine learning scoring function could capture functional form of binding affinity
- ▶ PDBbind benchmark standard for comparing performance

RF - Score

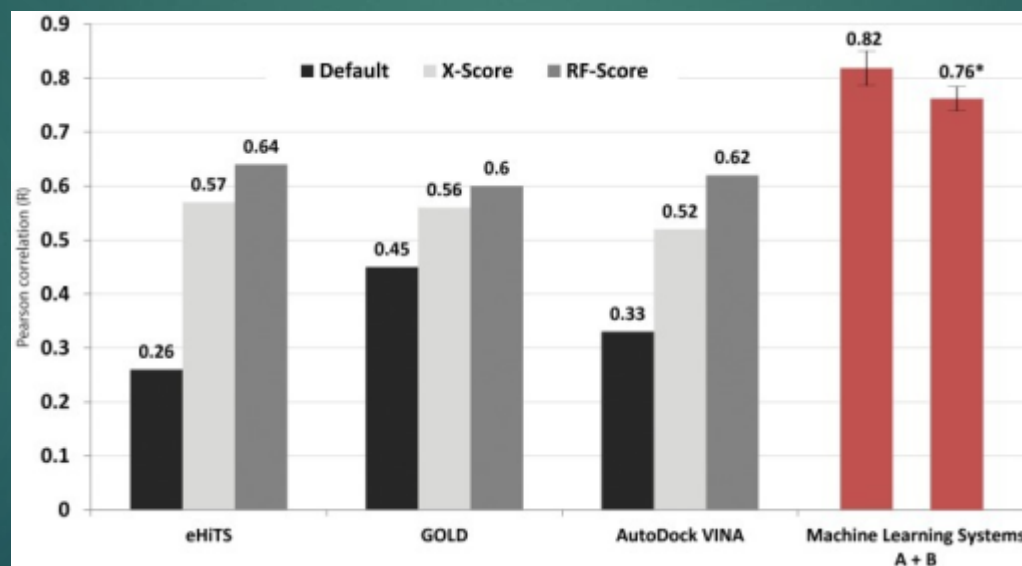
- ▶ Random Forest
- ▶ Features: number of protein – ligand atom type pairs within a certain range: C, N, O, F, P, S, Cl, Br, I
- ▶ Training (1105 complexes) and test (195 complexes) sets have no complexes in common
- ▶ Results
 - ▶ significantly better performance than 16 classical scoring functions
 - ▶ Performance increases with training set size unlike classical scoring functions

Table 2. Performance of scoring functions on the PDBbind benchmark

| Scoring function | <i>R</i> | <i>R_s</i> | SD |
|--------------------------|----------|----------------------|------|
| RF-Score | 0.776 | 0.762 | 1.58 |
| X-Score::HMScore | 0.644 | 0.705 | 1.83 |
| DrugScore ^{CSD} | 0.569 | 0.627 | 1.96 |
| SYBYL::ChemScore | 0.555 | 0.585 | 1.98 |
| DS::PLP1 | 0.545 | 0.588 | 2.00 |
| GOLD::ASP | 0.534 | 0.577 | 2.02 |
| SYBYL::G-Score | 0.492 | 0.536 | 2.08 |
| DS::LUDI3 | 0.487 | 0.478 | 2.09 |
| DS::LigScore2 | 0.464 | 0.507 | 2.12 |
| GlideScore-XP | 0.457 | 0.435 | 2.14 |
| DS::PMF | 0.445 | 0.448 | 2.14 |
| GOLD::ChemScore | 0.441 | 0.452 | 2.15 |
| SYBYL::D-Score | 0.392 | 0.447 | 2.19 |
| DS::Jain | 0.316 | 0.346 | 2.24 |
| GOLD::GoldScore | 0.295 | 0.322 | 2.29 |
| SYBYL::PMF-Score | 0.268 | 0.273 | 2.29 |
| SYBYL::F-Score | 0.216 | 0.243 | 2.35 |

Generic Machine Learning Scoring Functions for Binding Affinity

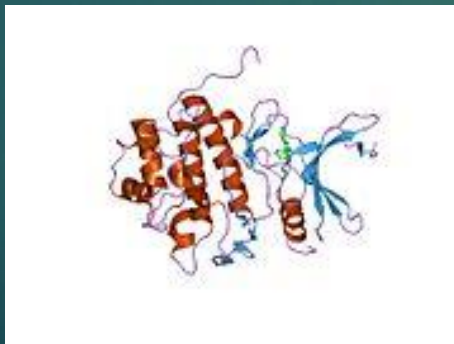
- ▶ Other models including Support Vector Regression, Neural Networks, Random Forests accounted for intermolecular interactions and physio – chemical ligand properties and performed even better



Family Specific Machine Learning Scoring Functions

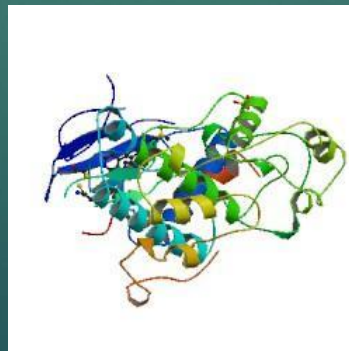
- ▶ Goal is to use Scoring Functions for specific drug targets
- ▶ Two ways to pick Scoring Functions for family specific targets from general Machine Learning Scoring Functions:
 - ▶ Pick best performing Scoring Functions on diverse set representing many target classes
 - ▶ Pick best performing Scoring Functions on test set of complexes of specific target class

CHK1



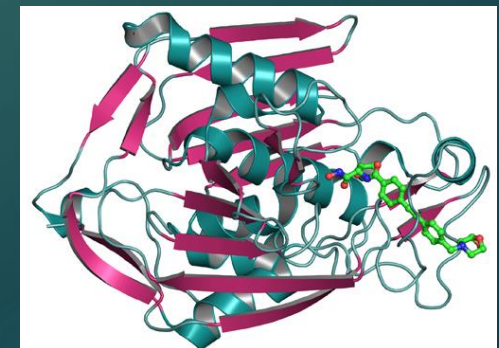
<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/CHEK1>

ERK2



<http://www.phosphosite.org/proteinAction?id=832&showAllSites=true>

LpxC

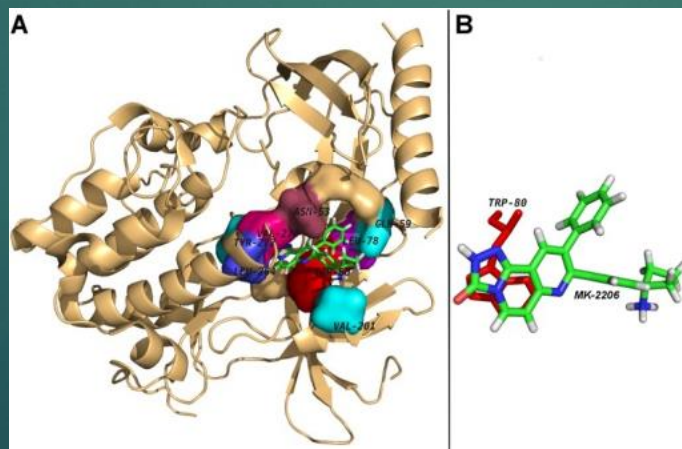


<http://necat.chem.cornell.edu/Structures2/3NZK.html>

Family Specific Machine Learning Scoring Functions

- ▶ Building family specific Scoring Functions – allows for more specific features to that target class
- ▶ Unsure if general or family specific Scoring Functions perform better for one target class because complexes from other target classes can contribute to performance

MD – SVR for Akt1 Inhibitors



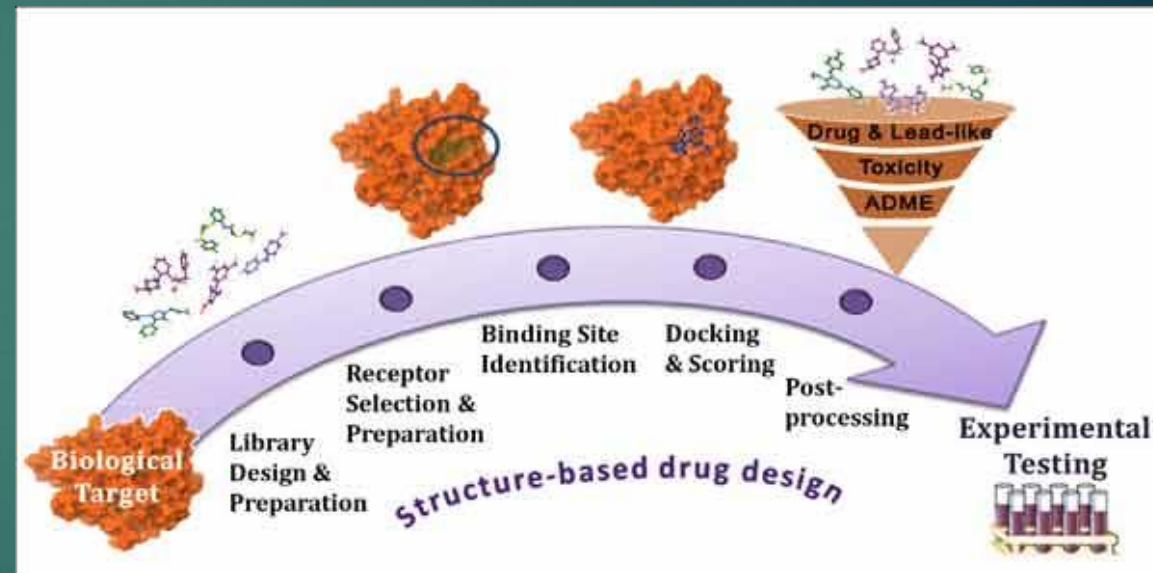
Machine Learning Scoring Functions for Virtual Screening

- ▶ Two types of Machine Learning Scoring Functions for virtual screening:
 - ▶ Regression based for ranking molecules – similar to binding affinity models
 - ▶ Classifiers for Virtual Screening – whether molecules will bind, true binders vs decoys
- ▶ Many models for classifiers including Random Forest, Support Vector Machine, Neural Network, Naïve Bayes



Machine Learning Scoring Functions for Virtual Screening

- ▶ Important results from experiments
 - ▶ Importance of tailoring machine learning Scoring Functions to task (Binding Affinity or Virtual Screening)
 - ▶ Training higher number of actives and inactives improves performance



Emerging Applications of Machine Learning Scoring Functions

- ▶ Pose generation
- ▶ Molecular Recognition
- ▶ Drug lead optimization
- ▶ Protein – protein binding affinity Scoring Functions

Limitations

- ▶ General summary of machine learning scoring functions, not too much detail on specific models
- ▶ No mention of performance of pose generation prediction models and importance to docking compared with scoring
- ▶ Feature selection is key for improving performance and is very difficult to accurately choose features for models

A Whole New Scorer

Docking predicts binding strength
By using scoring functions
Classical scorers
Are bad so we use machine learning ones

Generic functions work
On many diverse complexes
Better results than classic functions
And improvements with train size

A Whole New Scorer
For predicting binding affinity
Using machine learning
Improves scoring
Applied to virtual screening



<https://youtu.be/FSzpEE46PMY?t=21s>

A Family Specific
Scoring function for drug targets
Can be from generic ones
Or family specific
With detailed features for that target class

Applied to virtual screening

Can be regression based
Or classifying binders
Models for molecule finders
Like naïve Bayes and neural nets

A Whole New Scorer
For predicting binding affinity
Using machine learning
Improves scoring
Applied to virtual screening for increased accuracy

References

- ▶ *Bioinformatics* 2010, 9:1169-1175. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btq112
- ▶ *WIREs Comput Mol Sci* 2015, 5:405–424. doi: 10.1002/wcms.1225
- ▶ <http://www.intechopen.com/books/protein-engineering-technology-and-application/protein-protein-and-protein-ligand-docking>
- ▶ <http://archive.cnx.org/contents/4e7287b0-6c38-4829-abe3-3ae357bbf60f@10/protein-ligand-docking-including-flexible-receptor-flexible-ligand-docking>
- ▶ https://openi.nlm.nih.gov/detailedresult.php?img=PMC3877102_pone.0083922.g001&req=4
- ▶ <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/CHEK1>
- ▶ <http://www.phosphosite.org/proteinAction?id=832&showAllSites=true>
- ▶ <http://necat.chem.cornell.edu/Structures2/3NZK.html>
- ▶ https://openi.nlm.nih.gov/detailedresult.php?img=PMC4201482_pone.0109705.g001&req=4
- ▶ <http://www.nature.com/nchembio/journal/v6/n5/full/nchembio.354.html?message-global=remove>
- ▶ <http://www.eurekaselect.com/124979/article>
- ▶ <http://aladdin.wikia.com/wiki/Genie>